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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to identify primarily educational issues which are basic to the practitioner or researcher in the area of correctional education. Three categories of issues are examined. Management issues are one category and includes those which involve administrative and supervisory duties. Building a platform (rationale, philosophy, or policy) is essential to developing a correctional education curriculum. Creating more difficulty in management than any other aspect are faulty communications. There are three basic types of communications: formal, functional, and non-formal. The complexity of the network and difference in language are the focus of this issue. The final management issue is goal-setting and evaluating the desirability of a goal as it relates to individual perceptions and roles. A second category is that of contextual issues, which includes perception of the educational program and the nature of learners and instructors. The final category of issues encompasses the basics in prison education, including fostering human development, establishing opportunities and necessities for responsibility, the self-concept, meaning and purpose to correctional education, and establishing a cultural alternative. (A bibliography is appended.) (FP)

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BASIC ISSUES IN THE EDUCATION OF PRISONERS

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A paper prepared for the Annual Conference of the Ontario Educational Research Council, November, 1979.

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Introduction

It is my intention in this paper to identify the issues which, for me, are most basic to the practitioner or researcher in the area of correctional education. I have deliberately limited myself to issues which are primarily educational in nature and have not touched on criminology, corrections or social development. The identification of these issues is based on research done in relation to research and development contract between the Faculty of Education at Queen's University and the Correctional Service of Canada. Ontario Region contracted with Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology for its educational programs but negotiations toward a new contract with St. Lawrence College became difficult and the Regional Manager/Education and Training was directed to seek out other alternatives. In the end the University contracted to: (1) help with the selection and orientation of teachers, (2) give leadership in the design of a comprehensive educational program and supporting curricular material and (3) do a general evaluation of education in the penitentiaries in the Kingston region. In other words the research is based both on theory and practice.

We will examine three categories of issues. First are issues related to the management of education in correctional settings. Whether the educational endeavor is internal, (i.e. run by a ministry or department of the Solicitor General) or externally contracted, one of the major tasks is to build a working "philosophy" or platform that various interest groups can accept. Related to this, but broader in scope, is the issue of establishing comprehensive and reliable channels of communication. The second category has to do with contextual issues such as learners, teachers and settings. Thirdly we will explore the basic programatic issue of what should a prison education program seek to do.

Since this paper is really an overview, its treatment of specific issues is necessarily brief. For this reason I have chosen to attach a bibliography, rather than a list of references, which should aid the reader in delving more deeply into issues touched upon. For those with an orientation towards research the following may prove especially useful: Ayers (1978), Parlett (1974), Marshall Kaplan (1973), Griffin (1978), and the Ontario Institute Review (1979).

Basic Issues in the Education of Prisoners

1. Management Issues

Under the term management I want to discuss a range of issues outside of the classroom which are often the primary duties of supervisory and administrative personnel. I will identify three issues which, from my limited experience, and outside perspective, seem of greatest importance.

1.1. Building a Platform

I find the word "platform" more functionally useful than some words that express a similar idea e.g. rationale, philosophy, values or policy.

A platform is seen as a statement of assumptions, values and convictions that underlie a system or an organization. Usually the platform is held variously and implicitly by the members without there being an attempt to establish a common working platform acceptable to all members. George Beauchamp stresses a similar issue in terms of curriculum design. The values of the curriculum planners are at work in every decision yet how rarely they are talked about. One model for curriculum designing used by Beauchamp puts values at the top and centre. "Values", he says, "are a beginning point in curriculum decision making". (1975, p. 89)

For those attempting correctional education endeavours the establishment of a mutually agreed upon platform is seen as essential.

The question is how. I asked Beauchamp once at a curriculum conference what he recommends in terms of discerning values. He acknowledged the importance of the task but had nothing to suggest. The first step may be to bring to light differences between various interest groups.

Early in the Project we used the Q Sort method applied by Lawrence Downey (1960) which was used originally to look at the aims of public education. We used it in an attempt to: (1) increase awareness of differences, (2) begin to establish some common ground and (3) predict areas in which conflict might occur in the future. The instrument, while still in a rather crude state of development, proved very useful in the workshop setting. As can be seen in Figure 1 teachers and faculty members have

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Figure 1 about here

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similar priorities in most aims of correctional education. The sample of penitentiary educational administrators was small but from the findings reported in the evaluation of the Project it is probable that there would be much less agreement between these people and either the teachers or the faculty.

Another means whereby data may be gathered and some tentative hypotheses generated regarding divergent platforms is through a content analysis of stated aims and objectives of sub-systems. While it would have been helpful to do this early on, it was not until the final

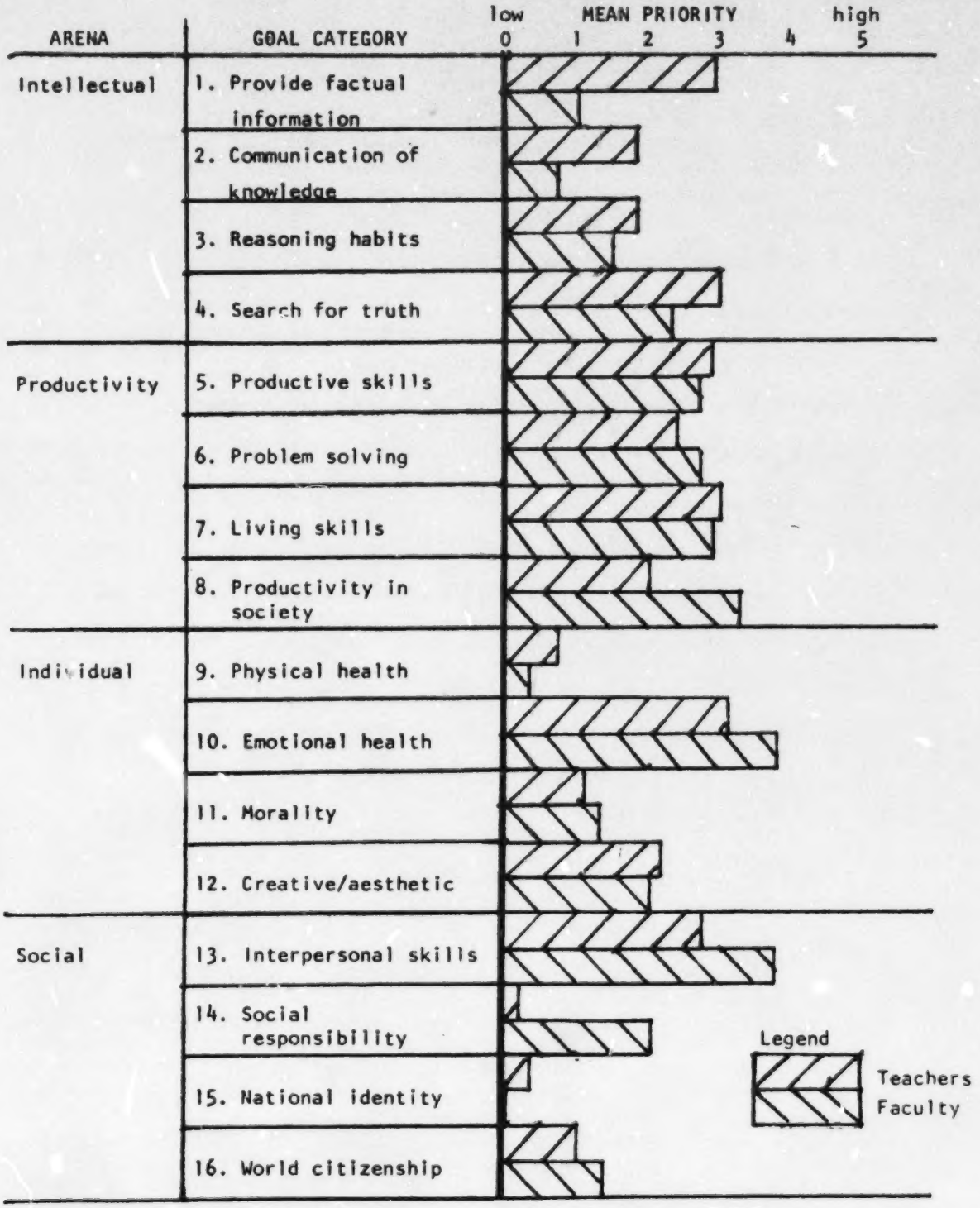


Figure 1

Mean Responses of Prison School Teachers and University Faculty in Prioritizing Possible Goals of Correctional Education

evaluation of the project that such a task was attempted. Using this approach (Table 1) provides a different dimension of sectioning the system.

Table 1 about here

A third approach to discovering platforms is to read between the lines of relevant research reports (Glaser, 1964; Parlett, Ayers E. Sullivan, 1975; Griffin, 1978). Some observations from Douglas Griffin's Report (1978) may be illustrative.

When various groups within the Federal penitentiary system were asked to rank order various possible ideal advantages to education and training, (Griffin, 1978, pp. 125, 154, 169) some interesting similarities and differences occur (see Table 2). All groups saw the improvement of the inmates feelings of self worth as the primary advantage to education and training while inmates saw this as second most important. Administrators in non-education related positions rated increased chance of employment as second while inmates saw it as a top priority advantage. Interestingly, teachers and instructors (it would be helpful to differentiate here), along with non-educational administrators, rated the development of rationality and logical thinking as a fourth priority. When we look at these data and compare them with some of the national objectives of the Canadian Corrections Service (Canadian Correction Service, 1977) it is obvious that no clear

TABLE 1

An Identification of Commonalities in Program Objectives Between Various Sub-systems

	National	Regional	Millhaven	Joyceville	Reception	Collins Bay	University
1. Foster self discipline, co-operation and co-operation.	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
2. Motivate to be law abiding.	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
3. Personal reformation and self regard.	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
4. Cognitive and moral development.	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
5. Freeing the mind-imagination, curiosity, problem solving.	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
6. Growth as total human beings.	1	1	0	0	1	0	1
7. Graduation diploma.	0	1	1	1	0	1	0
8. Use of professional staff of high quality.	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
9. Meet institutional needs.	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
10. Emulate culture outside prison.	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
11. Accommodate individual differences and characteristics.	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
12. Learn how to learn.	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
13. Teach life and working skills.	0	1	1	1	1	0	1
14. Composite, rather than purely academic program.	0	0	1	1	0	0	0

NOTE: 1 = included
0 = not included

consensus of opinion exists within the Service.

Table 2 about here

An effective educational platform will not necessarily be a polished rhetorical statement but will likely be a constantly changing phenomenon. There is a need for tools to help educators identify and articulate their assumptions, values and convictions. Also needed are the application of tools to make manifest the latent platforms of correctional education endeavors.

1.2. Communication

In our experience, faulty communications led to more difficulty than any other aspect of management. The formal lines of authority within the Federal prison system are quite clear although they change frequently. Complicating the matter, however, are functional lines of communication which sometimes parallel line authority but frequently do not. A third communication network is the non-formal which is often based on friendships, common interests or shared tasks. Figure 2 illustrates this network when an extraneous body is inserted. I

Figure 2 about here

certainly have no answers here but agree with the concerns of the O.I.S.E. reviewers (Ontario Institute, 1979, pp. 130-131).

Table 2

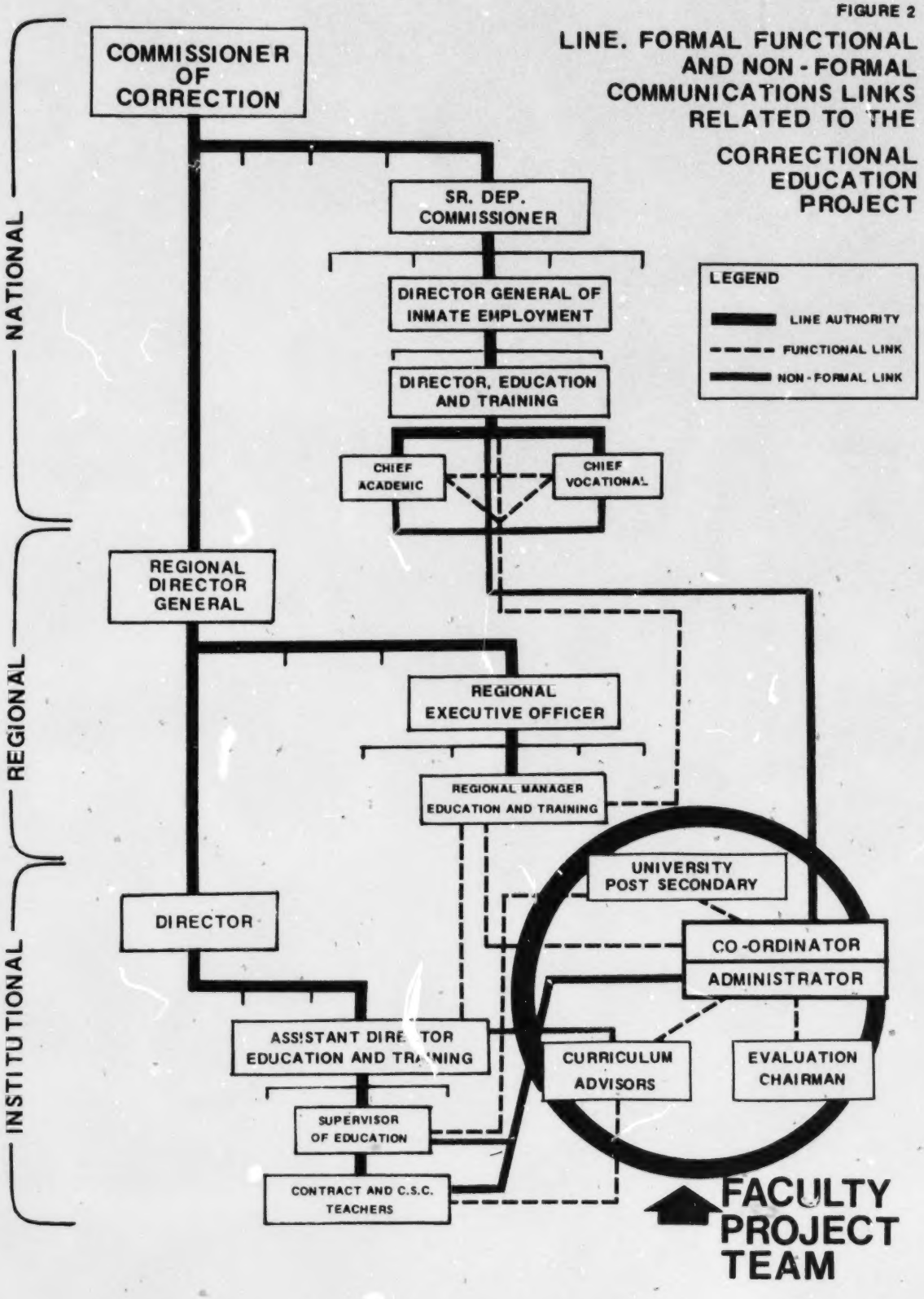
Percentage of Respondents Ranking These Statements

Either First or Second Out of Six or Seven

	Teachers and Instructors	Educational Administrators	Non-Educational Administrators
1. Education and training improve an inmate's feelings of self worth (Item 2).	53.8%	69.2%	55.1%
2. Education and training improve the inmate's chances of finding employment following release (Item 4).	40.7%	23.1%	50.9%
3. Education and training develop a sense of social and individual responsibility (Item 1).	40.1%	35.9%	33.8%
4. Development of rationality and logic (Item 3).	23.0%	35.9%	22.3%

FIGURE 2

LINE. FORMAL FUNCTIONAL AND NON-FORMAL COMMUNICATIONS LINKS RELATED TO THE CORRECTIONAL EDUCATION PROJECT



The one issue is the complexity of the network, especially if the inserted body (school, college, university) has a different type of network. Another issue is the difference in language - the words sound the same but mean different things. This has been found to be a major problem in interdisciplinary working groups within universities (Petrie, 1976, pp. 29^{ff}).

1.3. Goal Setting

There are some possible goals for inmate programs that could be a trap for the educational planner. Reduced rate of recidivism in one of these. While many programs report spectacular results early on, subsequent studies fail to support the early optimism. One of the NewGate projects, set up to help young offenders in Kentucky, reports, "Only three out of sixty-seven releases failed to make a satisfactory adjustment to society" (Morehead, 1971, p. 14).[1] The recidivism rate for graduates from the Draper Correctional Center's educational program was claimed to be twenty-five percent as compared to sixty-five percent for inmates from the same institution who had not participated in the program (McKee, 1967, p. 5). In the initial stages of The Just Community it was reported that the project was a success in most ways but the only success listed is, "After two years only sixteen percent had returned to prison or gotten entangled with the law" (Kohlberg, 1974, Part 1, p. 4). Daniel Glaser, who conducted one of the most extensive

studies of corrections in the United States, concludes, "Our investigation of the relationship between education and recidivism of federal prisoners did not yield evidence to suggest a clear crime reduction effect from education in prison" (1964, p. 285). There are just too many variables that affect recidivism to allow an education program to make any promises. The Marshall Kaplan, Gans and Kahn (1973) makes the same point and deals at length with the difficulty of using this measure of success. (Since age is the only known reliable predictor of reduced likelihood of a person's returning to prison it is possible that the best thing to do is keep all inmates in some form of suspended animation until age 35.)

Another dangerous goal for educational programs is that it should change the behaviour of inmates in the institution. Just as some educational programs may reduce the rate of return to prison so also it is observed that inmates involved in some kinds of educational programs (the University of Victoria programs, for example) appear to be less likely to cause trouble in the institution than those not in the program. These, however, ought to be seen as extra benefits and not something on which an educational program is judged.

It is my rather personal conviction that the goal of fundamental personality modification ought not to be seen as a legitimate aim of education either. Yochelson and Samenow may have a potent treatment tool but being based, as it appears to be, on gentle brainwashing techniques it cannot rightfully be called education. It should be noted,

however, that this is likely to be a point of ongoing controversy and needs further study.

Obviously what is seen as a desireable goal for education is a function of the individual's perception and the person's role in the structure. A politician may well say reduced recidivism is a top priority while the warden or director wants primarily to keep his institution quiet and peaceable. Some prisoners may want education to give them tools to get out of jail or to be better criminals while others may want an interesting way to pass the time and yet others may be seeking an education largely as an end in itself. Because of conflicting needs and platforms, goal setting in correctional education may always be extraordinarily problematic.

2. Contextual Issues

2.1. Perceptions of the Educational Program

Perceptions of education are almost as varied as its theoreticians and participants. However it is Paulo Freire who poses one of the key issues in its starkest form. "Education", he says, "is either for the liberation of men - their humanization, or for their domestication - their domination". (Brandes and Freire, 1971, p. 4). I would choose to say that when educational programs are used in any institution primarily as a means for control and social adjustment the word education should no longer be used. The primary purpose of education is to set the learner free, i.e. to help one develop as normally as possible, to foster responsibility for oneself and one's actions, to develop a strong sense of identity and realistic concept of self worth and to

stimulate a morality based on justice for all. An education worthy of this name, ought to enable a person to be a creator of new knowledge and a utilizer of existing knowledge and the tools of a broad portion of culture and society in order to maintain control over ones destiny and a reasonable degree of autonomy.

One of the very real dangers in Correctional Education is that the necessary concerns for control and security, for "good order and discipline", will spill over into the thinking of educators and suffocate efforts at significant education for liberation. It is with some wonder and admiration that one sees the following in the official statement of National Objectives of the Education and Training branch of the Canadian Corrections Service. "One of the fundamental objectives of education is precisely to free the mind, to enable people to think for themselves." (Canadian Corrections Service, 1977, p. 13). Roby Kidd (1973) says, "The objective is to provide the climate and atmosphere and freedom and self-discipline in which learning is promoted". (p. 14).

2.2. The Learners

The question is, 'Are prisoner-students just like the rest of us, only they got caught or are they an identifiable sub-population of adult learners?'. In many ways the former is true -- even Yochelson and Samenow admit that most humans show some of the characteristics that identify the criminal personality (1978, p. 253). We must remember that there is a wide range of people in any institution and while generalizations may apply to a large number they must never be applied indiscriminately to any individual. It must also be kept in mind that prison populations are constantly changing. The mandatory seven year sentence for certain drug related offences brought in numbers of educated people, many serving their first sentence. This changed

educational needs and, reportedly, even the climate of some institutions like the Prison for Women. It is still unclear what the mandatory twenty-five year sentence will do. It is predicted by one of the top planners in the Solicito. General's Department that 'the typical inmate a decade or two from now could be a white-collar computer fraud artist, well-educated but afflicted with a touch of larceny' (MacNeil, 1979). The other factor, of course, to keep in mind is that most outsiders are quite naive in trying to understand inmates. As one of my friends at Millhaven said, "We are all cons in here and we have lots of time to practice being the best". Overall there do seem to be some general characteristics in the inmate population which lead to special needs in planning by correctional educators.

2.2.1. Below Average Development

It is claimed that seventy-five percent of the general population in the United States reason morally at Stage 3 or 4 on the Kohlberg scale while the majority of inmates reason at Stage 1 or 2, (Kohlberg, 1974, Part 1, p. 28). Given the reported correlation between higher stage reasoning and moral behaviour this is not unexpected but what it

does imply is that in designing materials with values issues included, more sophisticated arguments will likely be incomprehensible to those whose moral judgements are largely egocentric and are based on avoidance of punishment and meeting one's own needs. This is probably to be expected, given the environment in which many inmates grew up and lived before incarceration and the obvious preconventional moral climate in the institutions. It appears also that there may be significant under-development of cognition as well (Yochelson and Samenow, 1977, p. 302). The implications of this need to be examined in the teaching of all subjects.

Another area that needs examination is that of conceptual level (Hunt, 1972) and appropriate structure. If the inmate students tend to be at a lower conceptual level than most adult students this may indicate a need for more controlled learning environment than one designed for other groups of adult learners, combined with a rational development plan. The issue of freedom and control is raised by Griffin in Phase One of the O.I.S.E. Review (1978). The data in Table 3 appear to indicate that teachers and instructors are most concerned with maintaining the balance of control in their hands with between 50% and 59% of the opinion that inmates should have some, little or no control. The Assistant Directors and Regional Coordinators appear more relaxed about this with their range of combined responses being 41% to 59%. There is considerable disagreement between inmates and instructors. The latter want to give some or no control and 60% of inmates would like full or most control.

"Adult education (androgogy) theory and practice usually suggests that adult learners should be given more freedom to determine the content or goals of their learning, the method of learning, and to evaluate how well they have learned. In your opinion, how much autonomy or control do you think inmate students should have in these areas?"

TABLE 3

Comparison of responses from three sub-populations to the question stated above respecting inmate control of education (Griffin, 1978)

Answer	% Teacher & Instructor	% AD/ET's & RC/ET's	% Inmates
1) Content or goals of learning.			
Full	4.4	2.6	37.2
Most	6.6	15.4	22.9
Equally-shared	25.8	30.5	22.9
Some or little	40.1	38.5	5.8
None	18.7	10.3	1.8
2) Methods of Learning			
Full	3.8	0	22.9
Most	8.8	10.3	20.2
Equally-shared	33.0	43.6	35.4
Some or little	36.3	33.3	10.3
None	13.7	10.3	1.3
3) Evaluation of what they have learned.			
Full	3.3	2.6	12.6
Most	8.8	5.1	13.5
Equally-shared	33.0	46.2	35.4
Some or little	36.3	23.1	12.6
None	13.7	17.9	15.2

It is my conviction after talking to practitioners and leading adult learning theorists that the learner and "teacher" should, ideally, mutually share in decisions regarding education with the possible exception of the decision as to which courses a person is to take. The mode of interdependence is often the most fruitful in teaching adults. This may well be the position of most inmates and, with respect to process and evaluation, many A.D./E.T's. One hypothesis respecting the variant position of teachers and instructors is that they are closer than the A.D./E.T's to experience and training in traditional school teaching where discipline and control are often key issues for teachers.

Certainly from a human development point of view, such as that presented by Erikson (1963), one can see in the case histories of many inmate students accumulating problems in the crises resolutions which lead to the commonly extolled virtues in our culture. When one contemplates the relationship of social structures to psycho-social development (Erikson, 1978, p. 29) it appears that most penal institutions try to keep inmates at pre-adolescent (latency?) stages. School and University programs that are perceived to be apart from the institution tend to provide environments in which higher order crises can be faced (see Figure 3) and dealt with constructively, and where cognitive and moral development may be fostered in a non-manipulated manner.

Figure 3

Erikson's view of the interplay of successive life stages (1978, p. 25)

THE INTERPLAY OF SUCCESSIVE LIFE STAGES

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
H. OLD AGE								Integrity vs Despair, Disgust: WISDOM
G. MATURITY							Generativity vs. Self-Absorption: CARE	
F. YOUNG ADULTHOOD						Intimacy vs. Isolation: LOVE		
E. ADOLESCENCE					Identity vs. Identity Confusion: FIDELITY			
D. SCHOOL AGE				Industry vs. Inferiority COMPETENCE				
C. PLAY AGE			Initiative vs. Guilt PURPOSE					
B. EARLY CHILDHOOD		Autonomy vs. Shame, Doubt: WILL						
A. INFANCY	Trust vs. Mistrust HOPE							

2.2.2. Above Average Irresponsibility

Yochelson and Samenow base their analysis of the criminal personality on the idea that each human being could be placed on a continuum somewhere between the poles of being totally responsible[2] and extremely irresponsible (Yochelson and Samenow, 1976, p. 253). They found that the inmates with whom they worked were all at the extremely irresponsible end of the spectrum. Kohlberg and his colleagues also see irresponsibility as a key part of the problem, in fact a definition of the Preconventional level could be applied almost equally well to "irresponsibility".

This has several implications for the educator. While low self concept is often a problem for adults in learning settings the criminal personality tends to have an overly inflated self concept leading to an over-estimation of abilities and a desire for instant success in any endeavour. Behaviour often appears to be grossly inconsistent, with a student eager to work and learn for a time and then suddenly not showing up or wanting to drop one thing and go on to another.

The need for responsible participation in some aspects of life in the prison is great and what better place than the school for this to take place. This calls for teachers who can be firm and loving, who hold the highest reasonable expectations for themselves and their students and who encourage them to live up to these expectations. Curriculum must not be seen as "watered down" but just as substantial as what the student might encounter in comparable streams of public education (Ayers, 1978, p. 13).

2.3. The Instructors

Different participants in a curriculum project view the role of the teacher differently. Using Doyle and Ponder's (1977-78) words, those optimists responsible for the project tend to see teachers as "rational adapters". "Presumably the weight of scholarly evidence together with an appropriately inspirational rhetoric, will compel any 'responsible and intelligent' teacher to rush out and try the latest 'new idea' in education" (p. 4). The pessimist is prone to see the classroom teacher as the "stone age obstructionist". Doyle and Ponder claim that most teachers best fit the category of "pragmatic skeptic" and are governed most by a "practicality ethic". Outside "experts" may find curriculum and/or instructional innovation difficult to promote in prison schools.

John Elliott, in discussing a major innovation in Science curriculum in Britain makes a very helpful observation which applies equally well to this Project. Teachers may appear defensive and resistant to change but, in reality, he says, "it is a defence against the demand to realize ideals to the full in what are perceived to be impossible circumstances". (1977, p. 5).

2.4. The Setting

One of the critical issues in the field of corrections has to do with the setting for incarceration. One of the priorities in North American institutions is security, i.e. people whom society views as a

threat must be contained. Millhaven and Archambault were built to be models of a secure, modern prison. Shortly after Millhaven opened there was a mass escape and millions have been spent in modification and additions to improve security. A few years after the institution opened the school was closed for two years because funds were not allocated to make changes that were deemed necessary.

There is evidence that long term incarceration may cause changes in personality and values in a direction opposite to what many educators and private citizens would like. For example, Stephen Duguid, a University of Victoria History professor, teaching at Matsqui Institution notes, "The prison thus acts as a powerful inhibitor to moral development"(1979, p. 5). McKay, Jaywardene and Reedie (1979, p. 11) note that there was a "decrease in self-evaluation found among men who have experienced longer terms of imprisonment". In spite of this, improved self regard is seen as a significant objective in statements of objectives at the Federal and Regional levels of the Corrections Service of Canada(Table 1). From the Griffin Review (1978) it appears that teachers and Assistant Directors/Education and Training see improved self worth as a significant goal and one of the greatest contributions of the education and training programs (pp. 125 and 156). As the McKay and associates point out, there is conflicting evidence on what incarceration does to self concept. This may give rise to hope for educators. There is also evidence that increased imprisonment produces more unfavourable attitudes towards work (McKay, et al, 1979, p. 12) which

may run contrary to the emphasis of the recent Parliamentary Committee (1977) report and the thrust of the current Commissioner of Corrections (MacNeil, 1979).

The physical setting of education in most prisons may leave a great deal to be desired. As Elton Mayo (1949) and his colleagues found in the thirties the physical conditions under which people work may be much less significant than the social environment. In visiting some of the Canadian Penitentiary schools, one of the most exciting for me was in the old British Columbia Penitentiary in New Westminster. Here the students had painted murals on the doors and walls and made every effort to make the place look as unlike a prison as possible. The school library was extensive, compared to most school libraries. The books had not been obtained according to the normal procedures but they were there and being used. Here was a learning environment, a miniature university campus that seemed to be there in spite of the wider setting. Similarly, while talking with the students at Matsqui Institution one had a sense of not being in a prison culture or the inmate sub-culture.

3. The Basics in Prison Education

One question which I have attempted to answer since becoming heavily involved in research and development in the field of correctional education is, "What ought to be the most fundamental goals of an educational program in a penitentiary?" It is possible to review the literature and see what the goals of various programs are. These are many and varied and are often those of programs which originated with a quite different client group. In our evaluation of the Queen's

University Correctional Education Project we did an analysis of stated objectives of educational programs at the Federal, Regional and institutional level and found considerable differences (see Table 1) Griffin chose to ask the people in corrections and, as was noted earlier, there was little agreement. Essentially, in all honesty, what we end up with is a judgement reflecting the values and priorities of the person making the judgement.

Nevertheless if we restrict ourselves to what might rightfully be called education and take account of what we know of adult learners who are inmates there emerges a set of goals for education in penitentiary settings.

3.1. Fostering human development

Is the age of thirty-five plus or minus five significant because the inmates become too old to feel confident as criminals? Or, possibly, they become more skillful and does not tend to get caught as easily. It is quite possible, even probable, that there is a maturing process taking place (Ontario Institute, 1979, p. 34). Psycho-social and moral development may be taking place (in spite of the prison environment) which lead to changes in values, moral reasoning and behaviour. Certainly there is the need for more research in this area. However, it would be safe to assume, that the prison school ought to provide an environment that stimulates and supports human growth and development. People ought to face real moral issues and learn to

deal with them honestly, openly and rationally. They ought to be allowed to face the Eriksonian crises personally and vicariously (through literature and history). Not only the age related conflicts that the books say they should be facing but also all those previous ones that 'can thus be seen to reach into, and to be renewed on, the level of the last ....' (Erikson, 1978, p. 27). Mentor (Levinson, 1978) type relationships might be fostered. The work of Yochelson and Samenow (1976, 1979) and Kohlberg (1974) may be helpful but the dangers should be anticipated (Kohlberg, 1979).

3.2. Establish opportunities and necessities for responsibility

Adult learners tend to see themselves as responsible in most areas of life and would prefer to be allowed this stance in most learning situations. Even criminals, who are labelled totally irresponsible, may act quite responsibly within their own frame of reference. The inmate student can only become, in Yochelson and Samenow's words, 'an effective, constructive person of total integrity' (1977, p. 187) given the opportunity to work on these characteristics.

More, is needed, however, than merely an opportunity to practice. Students must be assessed not only for grade level and intelligence but also for learning style and ability to handle responsibility. They may need to learn skills in living and learning. They will need constant feedback and a strong challenge to grow and win respect. The kind of teaching that is called for here is not easy, in fact it could be a great deal more work than tutoring students working on their own or

doing the standard lecture and "socratic" questioning[3].

3.3. Self Concept

How the student views her/himself is a critical factor in terms of academic success and probability of responsible living. "The self is the individual's basic frame of reference, the central core, around which the remainder of the perceptual field is organized" (Combs and Snygg, 1959, p. 146). Self concept ties in closely with identity and how persons define themselves.

Purkey notes, "Academic success or failure appears to be as deeply rooted in concepts of the self as it is in measured mental ability, if not deeper" (1970, p. 14). He goes on to give evidence that even when teachers took a portion of this regular academic teaching time to help pupils develop their self concept, the pupils did better academically than those whose teachers avoided the issue of self concept.

Yochelson and Samenow remind us of the complexity of this area of concern. The criminal appears to have an inflated self image and a belief that he can do anything he sets his mind to

but there is always the threat of, what they call, the Zero State when self concept is very low. The issue for the educator or researcher is less clearcut than in working with children or adults from other populations.

3.4. Meaning and Purpose

Probably one of the most destructive features of prison life is its sense of utter meaninglessness for many inmates. In discussing this

with inmates they do find some semblance of meaning in moneymaking jobs, hobbycrafts, contact with loved one, some vocational training and academic education that issues in a degree or college diploma.

The meaning question, obviously, goes much deeper than these concrete symbols. It is related to one's self concept and philosophy (Theology) of life as well as to what Levinson calls the Dream which, he says, "Has the quality of a vision, an imagined possibility that generates excitement and vitality" (1978, p. 91). McKay et al see this as the most fundamental need of inmates in long-term custody (1979, p. 55).

3.5. A Cultural Alternative

Assistant Crown Attorney, John McKenna, addressing the jury at the inquest into the suicide death of an inmate said, "When you remove freedom of choice from a person, you in effect create a different type of man .... If I, of all people can see and feel injustice at the degradation and torture some of these prisoners must suffer, than I am sure it must touch your soul." (1979, p. 7). In society's attempt to, at the same time, punish and rehabilitate we place the prisoner into a new cultural context. It is not clear what the aculturation process does over the years but, as has already been pointed out, there is evidence that it may not tend to produce well adjusted, law abiding citizens.

In 1945, while pondering the issue of rebuilding democracy after the War, Kurt Lewin noted, "Re-education must be a process that is

functionally similar to a change in culture (1948, p. 58). In effect this is what the University of Victoria program attempts to do (Ayers, 1978, 1979; Duguid, 1979). Certainly Kohlberg and his colleagues are attempting to create what amounts to an alternate culture with their Just Community (Kohlberg, 1974; Muson, 1979). The NewGate approach had this in mind but its outcome was variable (Marshall Kaplan, 1973). Numerous other programs have the counter-cultural approach at least implicit in what they do.

None, however, to the best of my knowledge, have started from a theoretical and philosophic value base. The problems and dangers of attempting to replicate the climate and morals of "normal" society are manifold, as the O.I.S.E. reviewers recognize (1979, pp. 42-45). With its popularity and promise, this approach may be most in need of quality research and evaluation.

Footnotes

[1]A subsequent study conducted by an independent research organization reported that while the program was a success it did not lower recidivism rates (Peterson, 1976, p. 9). Also see the Marshall Kaplan (1973) study.

[2]The responsible person is defined as 'an effective, constructive person of total integrity'. (Yochelson and Samenow, 1977, p. 187).

[3]The University of Victoria program in Matsqui Institution is seen by some as the exemplar program in Canada. Duguid (1979) discusses the attempt of the program to move students towards greater responsibility.

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